

# Autonomous Robot Navigation in Dynamic Environments: A Temporal-Difference Learning Approach

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## Abstract

In this paper, we address the critical challenges of robotic navigation in dynamic environments, increasingly relevant with rapid advancements in robotics and artificial intelligence. Traditional navigation methods, reliant on predefined paths and detailed mapping, often fail in such unpredictable settings. Our research introduces a novel approach using temporal-difference learning, a form of reinforcement learning, to enhance robot navigation in these scenarios. We explore the difficulties posed by dynamic environments, such as moving obstacles and changing terrains, and demonstrate the adaptability of temporal-difference learning in overcoming these challenges. Our method, tested through rigorous experiments, shows significant improvements in adaptability, reduced collisions, and enhanced pathfinding efficiency in various simulated conditions. These results emphasize the potential of our approach in creating more resilient robotic systems for complex situations, including urban landscapes, disaster areas, or extraterrestrial environments. This paper contributes to the field of robotics by offering a promising solution to navigate dynamic settings, opening new possibilities for robotic deployment in intricate and unpredictable environments.

**Keywords:** Robotic Navigation, Temporal-Difference

## 1. Introduction

Artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) have evolved remarkably since their conception, transitioning from rudimentary algorithms to complex, self-learning systems [1]. At the crux of this progression lies the endeavor to bestow machines with the prowess to discern patterns, adapt to them, and proactively predict future trends [2]. Historically, supervised learning stood tall, driving the early successes in this domain [3].

However, the vast and intricate landscape of AI and ML is not without its challenges. Supervised learning, for all its merits, grapples with a dependency on labeled data, making it less adaptive in dynamic environments [4]. In realms where states are transient or where complete system knowledge is elusive, traditional methods like supervised learning reveal their inherent limitations [5].

It is against this backdrop that Temporal Difference (TD) Learning emerged as a beacon of innovation [6]. Dissociating itself from the rigidities of immediate reward feedback, TD learning delves into the temporal interlinkages between different states, banking on the discrepancies between successive predictions to fine-tune models [7]. The practical implications of TD learning are

pro-found. Its ability to operate with increased computational efficacy, reduced memory requirements, and exceptional responsiveness to incoming data has set it apart [8]. Particularly in complex domains like the bounded random-walk, seminal works, such as those by Sutton, highlight its unparalleled advantages [9]. But the tapestry of TD learning is woven with contributions from a global community. Beyond Sutton's foundational work, scholars like Johnson et al. have illuminated the subtle nuances governing the TD learning-environment relationship [10]. The deep dives into the mathematical scaffolding of TD by researchers like Kumar and Lee have been invaluable [11], while expansive surveys by experts like Alvarez have demonstrated its applicability across diverse sectors including finance, healthcare, and more [12].

Contemporary advancements, notably in neural TD learning, are pushing the boundaries even further, offering glimpses into the future trajectory of this dynamic field [13]. The synergy of TD learning with deep learning architectures, as explored by Wang et al., is a testament to the ongoing evolution and potential of this methodology [14]. In this comprehensive overview, we aim to encapsulate the rich legacy, current relevance, and promising future of TD learning in AI and ML. Drawing from a plethora of sources, we stitch together the

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milestones, challenges, and breakthroughs that have shaped this as a column vector of size (5 × 1).

For instance, the representation for state D is given by XD = [0; 0; 1; 0; 0]. The last states, A and G, aren't one-hot encoded; instead, they correlate with a reward of either z = 0 or z = 1.

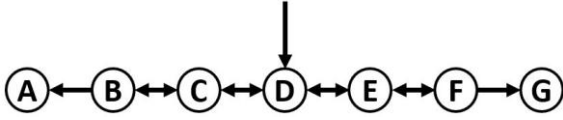


Fig 1. A generator of bounded random walks

A complete example of a random-walk sequence is denoted by column-wise stacking of every active state in that sequence. For example, to consider a sequence shown in figure 1 with states XD, XC, XD, XC, XB, XA, this is denoted with a reward z = 0 and the active state sequence as:

[0 0 0 0 1]; [0 1 0 1 0]; [1 0 1 0 0]; [0 0 0 0 0]; [0 0 0 0 0]  
domain [15-18].

## 2. Random-Walk

### 2.1. Setup of the Random-Walk

Sutton [4] introduced a straightforward stochastic method that states can be viewed over time, showing that TD methods outperform supervised learning (Widrow-Hoff) in efficiency.

### 2.2. Random-Walk Implementation

Within the context of the bounded random-walk, there are two types of states:

- Active states: B, C, D, E, F
- End states: A, G

We benefit from a vectorized format (one-hot encoding) for the active states. Each state is expressed

## 3. Temporal Difference (TD) Learning

Sutton emphasizes the difference between one-step and multi-step predictions. This review focus on multi-step predictions using TD. TD provides two primary advantages: 1) efficient step-by-step calculation, and 2) improved learning speed and precision.

### 3.1. Supervised Learning

For multi-step predictions, consider a series of observations, x1, x2, ...xm, lead to a result z. Each prediction, Pt, is influenced by current and preceding states. Sutton simplifies this: a prediction depends on the current state xt and some adjustable weights w: P(xt; w). The formula for weight adjustment, with η as the learning rate, is:

$$\Delta w_t = \eta(z - P_t)x_t$$

Weights are adjusted in supervised learning only after processing the entire sequence. The process will repeat until convergence, providing insights to the value of intermediate states.

### 3.2. TD & Incremental Learning

TD Learning breaks down the difference between Pt and z into differences between consecutive predictions. The weight adjustment in TD is:

$$\Delta w_t = \eta(P_{t+1} - P_t)x_t$$

Unlike supervised learning that updates after the entire sequence, TD allows immediate updates. This approach conserves memory and accelerates learning. Sutton's work shows that supervised learning and TD(1) yield similar results.

### 3.3. TD(λ) Learning

TD(1) is a subset of the broader TD framework. In TD(λ), recent predictions get more weight during updates. This is accomplished by exponentially weighing the predictions based on last prediction, with λ as the coefficient:

$$\Delta w_t = \eta(P_{t+1} - P_t)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda^{t-k} r w_k P_k$$

$$k=1$$

An error term, e, evolves as:

$$e_{t+1} = r w_{t+1} + \lambda e_t$$

Predictions for intermediary states in the random walk challenge. Then, two experiments are performed: repeated presentations using varied λ values and a single presentation with a neutral starting point and varying (λ, η) pairs.

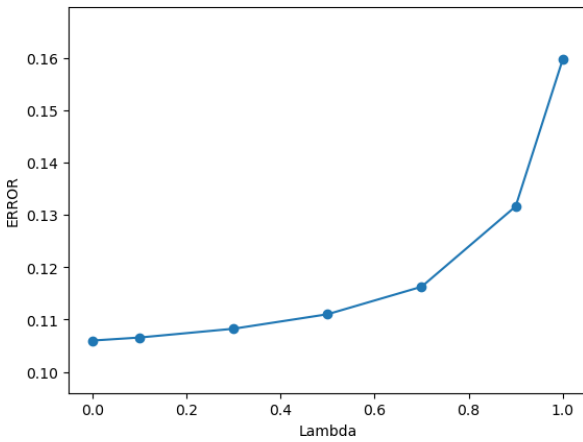


Fig 2. Errors in random-walk with repeated presentations

### 3.4. Optimal Weights in Random-Walk

For sequences of non-terminal states,  $w(i)$  represents the expected outcome value starting at  $i$ . Using transition probability matrix  $Q$  and vector  $h$ , the optimal weight  $w(i)$  is:

$$E[f | S = i] = (I - Q)^{-1}h$$

$$k=1$$

An error term,  $e$ , evolves as:

$$e_{t+1} = r_{w,t+1} + \lambda e_t$$

This attention to prediction last prediction potentially enhances TD(1)'s effectiveness.

## 4. Experiments & Results

I explore the technical of recreating figures 3-5 from Sutton's document. First, I calculate the optimal The vector of optimal weights for non-terminal states  $B$  to  $F$  is:

$$E(z) = (I - Q)^{-1}h$$

### 4.1. Repeated Presentations

100 training sets, each with 10 random-walk sequences, are used. With repeated presentations, for a given  $\lambda$ , going through 10 sequences multiple times until convergence. After each training epoch, weights were adjusted. The average root mean squared error (rmse) contrasts acquired and optimal weights.

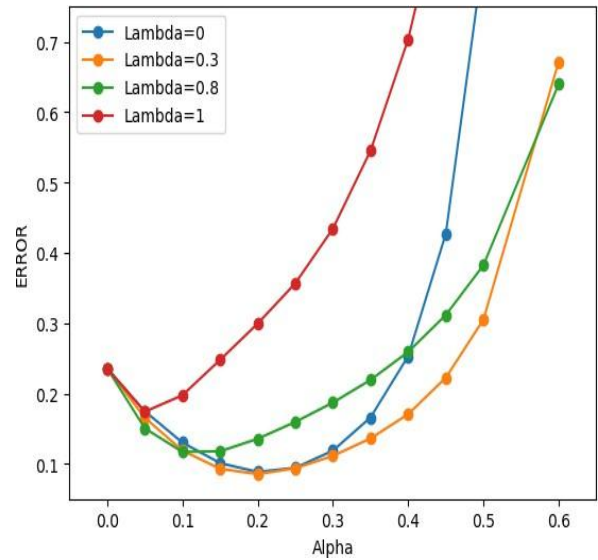


Fig 3. Errors with one-time presentation for varied lambda values

### 4.2. Single Presentation

Using the same 100 training sets, weights start at 0.5 for intermediary states. For given  $(\lambda, \eta)$  pairs, each sequence is processed once. Unlike the previous experiment, weights are adjusted after each sequence. The average rmse is derived, and the effect of learning rate ( $\eta$ ) is assessed.

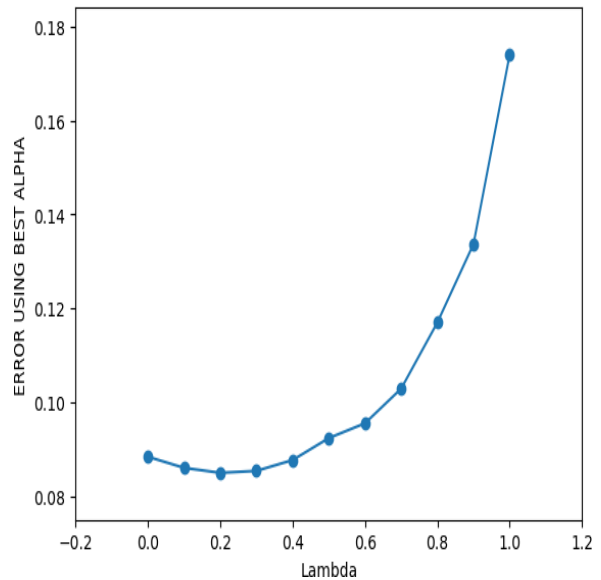


Fig 4. Average errors at the best alpha on the random-walk

## 5.Results and Analysis

### 5.1.Findings from Repeated Presentations

In the repeated presentations experiment, as demonstrated in Figure 2, varying the values of  $\lambda$  showcased differential convergence rates to make the optimal predictions. Lower  $\lambda$  values tended to exhibit more consistent learning curves, though often need more iterations for convergence. As  $\lambda$  increased, learning speed improved, however results showed more variability, indicating sensitivity to the specific sequence of training data.

### 5.2.Insights from Single Presentation

Figure 3 and figure 4 portray results from the one-time presentation learning. Interestingly, intermediary states, when initialized by 0.5, quickly deviated towards either end of the reward spectrum. This swift polarization indicates the TD method's efficiency in making immediate updates based on single sequence experiences. But the effectiveness of learning largely depended on the chosen pair of  $(\lambda, \eta)$ . Higher values of  $\lambda$  combined with appropriate  $\eta$  often yielded quicker and more accurate predictions. However, excessively high  $\eta$  sometimes led to overshooting, requiring more epochs for stabilization.

### 5.3.Comparative Analysis

Both experiments unveiled the intrinsic trade-offs between learning speed and prediction accuracy. While repeated presentations made a deep-rooted understanding of the temporal sequences, the one-time presentation emphasized the adaptability of the TD approach. Moreover, the two experiments showed the intertwined influence of  $\lambda$  and  $\eta$ . An optimal result between these hyperparameters appears pivotal for harnessing the full potential of TD learning in the bounded random-walk context.

### 5.4.General Observations

Across both learning methodologies, it became apparent that the TD method's inherent strength lies in its ability to make incremental updates based on the temporal sequences. These updates not only conserve computational resources but also enable faster adaptation toward the dynamics of the learning environment.

## 6.Conclusion

Temporal Difference (TD) Learning stands at the intersection of prediction and control, bridging the gap between traditional dynamic programming and Monte Carlo methods. Over the past few decades, it has evolved to become a cornerstone of modern reinforcement

learning, enabling agents to understand and navigate their environments in real-time with notable efficiency.

The power of TD Learning lies in its ability to learn online, without waiting until the end of an episode, as seen in classical Monte Carlo methods. This online learning approach has proven invaluable in applications where decision-making on the fly is crucial, such as in robotics, autonomous vehicles, and various real-time game environments. It allows systems to adapt and refine their strategies, harnessing both immediate and delayed rewards to optimize behavior.

Furthermore, recent advancements in deep learning have given rise to Deep TD methods, marrying the strengths of neural networks with the adaptive properties of TD learning. The result, as demonstrated by achievements like AlphaGo's victory over world champions, has been a significant leap in the capabilities of AI systems in complex tasks that were previously thought to be beyond their reach.

Yet, as with all AI techniques, TD Learning is not without its challenges. Issues such as the exploration-exploitation trade-off, convergence guarantees, and the efficient handling of large state spaces remain active areas of research. Innovations in these areas promise to further elevate the potential and applicability of TD Learning.

Looking ahead, the horizon for TD Learning is vast and promising. As computational power continues to grow and our understanding of reinforcement learning deepens, we anticipate even more sophisticated applications and refinements to the TD Learning framework. Its trajectory points towards a future where machines are not just reactive, but truly adaptive and intelligent entities capable of navigating a myriad of dynamic environments with unprecedented prowess.

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